SCHOOL AND SOCIETY

EDITED BY
J. McKEEN CATTELL, W. CARSON RYAN, JR., AND RAYMOND WALTERS

Volume XVI | SATURDAY, OCTOBER 28, 1922 | Number 409

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$5.00 A YEAR | PUBLISHED WEEKLY | 15 CENTS A COPY

THE SCIENCE PRESS

UTICA, N. Y.—11 Liberty Street AND GARRISON, N. Y
GRAND CENTRAL TERMINAL, NEW YORK CITY

EDITORIAL COMMUNICATIONS SHOULD BE ADDRESSED TO THE EDITORS OF SCHOOL AND SOCIETY, SWARTHMORE, PA.

Entered as second-class matter November 9, 1921, at the Post Office at Utica, N. Y., under the Act of March 3, 1879.

FOR FALL USE

Problems of American Democracy

BY

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A combined treatment of the political, economic and social questions of the day. The following list of chapter heads, chosen at random, will indicate the broad scope of this new text:

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THE MACMILLAN COMPANY

New York Boston Dallas
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SCHOOL AND SOCIETY

Volume XVI SATURDAY, OCTOBER 28, 1922 Number 409

THE RECONSTRUCTION OF DEMOCRACY[1]

THE word "Democracy" has become a fetish in America, and to criticize it is considered not only to be poor form, but to be destined to failure. We are permitted to do the utmost violence to democracy in our actions so long as we extol it with our words. As a matter of fact, however, the popular idea of democracy is a delusion—the world has never seen such a democracy, and from the nature of the case it never can.

By democracy I accept the ordinary meaning of the word, viz: The rule of the people, or the rule of the many, or the rule of the majority—for this is Bryce's definition. Better, still, and fore definite, the definition which found its crystalization in Lincoln's Gettysburg speech—"Government of the people, by the people, for the people." This seems to be the ideal, especially on this continent, but as yet unrealized. It is true we have had government of the people, but never by the people, and only incidentally or unintentionally for the people, and we have probably come as near the ideal as any people of a population the size of ours can come.

Historically the original rule was probably autocratic—that is, the rule of the herd. When the head of the herd or clan became physically infirm he was supplanted by another autocrat. It was the rule of the physically fittest. When the autocrat became weak or otherwise unfit to govern, another took his place; this came down to comparatively modern times. Later, a body of men, who by superior intelligence had succeeded to power of different kinds and in different ways, assumed the right to assist the autocrat, or to divide responsibility with him. The difficulty came when this group was kept closed, and only those of certain birth could enter it, and frequently the particular circumstances which made the parent great failed to operate in the case of the son, and the group became unfit to rule longer. At other times some one of the group became much stronger than the others and renewed the autocracy. There was this constant revolt against the autocrat and the closed oligarchy, and the pendulum swung to the other extreme—the extreme which we call democracy. The revolt was always against the closed character of the government, whether of the autocracy or the oligarchy. It was against the class distinction, and against the hereditary right to rule that objection was made. It was always found that persons fitted to rule were springing up outside the ruling class, while persons unfit to rule were not infrequent in the ruling class. Among thinking men the contest could never be for a real democracy, for we all know that, except among a small, selected group, government by the people is an impossibility. This, in brief, was the history of the inception of democracy—it was a violent and unreasoning reaction against a closed ruling class—when that class represented an autocracy or an oligarchy—and as extreme in its way as was the autocracy.

[1] Address at inauguration as president of Colgate University, Hamilton, N. Y., October 7, 1922.

If all men were born free and equal, democracy would not only be possible, but it would be very desirable. Whether fortunately or unfortunately this is not so. The mental tests recently made on one and three quarters million men in the United States Army showed us not only an inequality, but revealed even larger proportions in the extreme classes than we thought likely or perhaps possible. With only 13½ per cent. of the population able to get through college well, 15 per cent. able to get through at all, and 25 per cent. unable to comprehend the significance of the ballot, democracy is out of the question. The real tariff experts of this country could probably be counted on the fingers of one hand, and these do not agree, because they either have not all the same facts or else do not interpret them the same way, and yet we calmly submit the subject of the tariff to the people as a whole, 25 per cent. of whom are mentally subnormal, and the average mentality of whom is slightly over thirteen years. The subject of the League of Nations is one, the ramifications of which are too numerous and complicated for any one expert to grasp, and yet we can readily have an election on this. It may be a wise course to treat the people like children and let them play at governing themselves, but would it probably not be as wise to recognize the truth? The play goes on until a problem arises and then we call for a "leader." What we mean, of course, is a ruler. The ruler, thus called, rules autocratically during the period of the difficulty and then lets us play again. We have the example of England during the war when Mr. Lloyd George was called to rule, and the crisis has not yet passed. The most autocratic ruler of that critical period was the president of the greatest democracy, Mr. Wilson. Sometimes, however, the ruler calls himself, instead of being called by others to rule, but rule he does, and is permitted to do so, as long as danger calls for real rule. No greater denial of Lincoln's definition of democracy was ever given than by Lincoln himself. There were times during the Civil War when there was only one voice and only one mind—and that voice and that mind were supreme. He was the ruler chosen not by the people, not by the many, not by the majority—a majority of nearly one million voted against him—but he ruled and ruled well. It was fortunate for the United States that such an autocrat was in power for such a time.

The idea of democracy is not only founded upon the mistaken theory that all men are born free and equal, but upon another theory equally unsound, that "the voice of the people is the voice of God." It has never been so. The voice of God is the voice of one calling in the wilderness, calling on the many to repent. The voice of the people calls, "Crucify him!"—the voice of God is tabernacled in the person who treads the wine press alone. The divine right of the people has no more foundation than the divine right of kings—and both are wrong. Manhood suffrage has been our greatest and most popular failure, and now we double it by granting universal adult suffrage. We gain nothing by doubling the number, but in some way we must double or quadruple the average intelligence of voters. Of course it was the height of folly to permit people of mental subnormality to vote simply because they were males, or to deny highly intelligent people the privilege simply because they were females; but we have not ameliorated conditions by extending the suffrage to more people of the same mentality. The melting-pot figure has been incorrectly interpreted. There is no alchemy

in the melting pot, as we have discovered. Some apparently thought that if we put gold and silver and copper and iron into the pot the product of the furnace would be gold! We find we have not got rid of an ounce of iron. In fact we find after a few generations more iron and less gold.

There is said to be a natural craving for self-government, but it seems as though this is probably but a revolt against unjust government by others. If government is benevolent and just there is no expressed desire for self-government. At any rate, the desire for self-government is only up to the ability to govern oneself profitably or well, and consequently persons would have it, if at all, up to certain degrees or stages. When it is found that we are not able to govern ourselves, we are not only willing but we desire to have rulers.

Let us look the question fairly in the face and be honest with ourselves. We are ruled in industry, in commerce, in professions, in government by an intellectual aristocracy. We have never had a true democracy, and the low level of the intelligence of the people will not permit of our having one. We can not conceive of any worse form of chaos than a real democracy in a population of an average intelligence of a little over thirteen years. If the war was fought to make the world safe for democracy, the success of the object would be a ghastly failure. Fortunately no one thought that it was fought for that purpose, except those who were unfit to be a part of a democracy.

Even Lord Bryce in his great work on Modern Democracies admits that the rule is never by the many but always by the few. I shall quote somewhat fully from him, for while he talks continually about democracy, he practically admits there is no such thing. In his chapter on "Oligarchies within Democracies" he says, "No one can have had some years' experience of the conduct of affairs in a legislature or an administration without observing how extremely small is the number of persons by whom the world is governed." (p. 542). "In large democratic countries like England and France, and above all in the United States, the number of persons who count, swelled as it is by journalists and by the leaders of various organizations that can influence votes, is very much larger in proportion to the population [than in Germany and Austria] but that proportion is still infinitesimally small." (p. 544). "But the most striking illustration of the law that the larger the body the fewer those who rule it, is furnished by the great Labor Unions that now exist in all industrial countries. The power which the members of the unions entrust to their delegates to trade congresses, and the docility with which in some countries they follow whatever lead is given them by a strong will, can, as an able writer who had given special study to the subject remarks, be in those countries paralleled only by the religious veneration given to saints." (p. 545 f.). "Thus free government can not but be, and has in reality always been, an oligarchy within a democracy. But it is oligarchy not in the historical sense of the rule of a class, but rather in the original sense of the word, the rule of few instead of many individuals, to wit, those few whom neither birth nor wealth nor race distinguishes from the rest, but only nature in having given to them qualities or opportunities she had denied to others." (p. 550). He concludes that the only functions of the many in contrast to the few are possibly three, viz: 1, "Though the people can not choose and guide the means administration employs, they can

prescribe the ends, and so although government may not be by the people, it may be for the people"; 2, "They commit the means for attaining that end to the citizens whom they select for the purpose"; and 3, "They watch these selected citizens to make sure that they do not misuse the authority entrusted to them." Bryce then continues, "Of these three functions the most important and most difficult is that of choosing leaders, for though it seems simple to say that government must pursue the common good, the power to discern and decide in any given case what is that good, and what means best conduce thereto, needs a wisdom and an unselfishness possessed by few. Since the people can seldom do this for themselves, their leaders must do it for them, and be held responsible for the consequences." In effect this means that all the many can do is to choose their ruler, but in how few cases is even this possible! In most cases the best offered to a voter is a choice between two persons, neither one of whom he wishes to have for a ruler. Some have their rulers born, some have them chosen, but most people in democratic countries have their rulers thrust upon them.

There must be some solution to the problem of government, and we must find it. What is it? We must first recognize that we are and have been, since the revolt against autocracy, ruled by the intelligentsia; more than ever the rule must be by an aristocracy, *i. e.*, a rule by the best. The only rival to an aristocracy would be a timocracy, *i. e.*, government by honor or worth; but even in Solon's time this was really a plutocracy, for the choice was on a basis of wealth, and division of classes was made according to the amount of taxes assessed. Perhaps a timocracy might even to-day be chosen inversely according to the amount of taxes evaded. However, we hope our aristocracy may include those of honor and worth.

This aristocracy must inevitably be the most intelligent, but it must also be well trained, benevolently inclined, and willing to admit any others to its membership who are fitted to belong. Democracy then comes to be a government of the people, for the people, by all those of their number fitted by intellectual ability, moral ideals, and careful training. The ruling has always been by the few intelligent members of the community or the nation, and in America the aristocracy has always had the "open shop." The training has also been a factor, even if an accidental factor, but the element most lacking has been the moral ideals. Government for the people, instead of for the governors, must be the key note of the future, and the task of the colleges and the universities is the training of this aristocracy.

It may be interesting to speculate concerning the effect of mental tests upon the problem of democracy. If the present hopes and expectations are realized they will result in a caste system as rigid as that of India, but on a rational and just basis. We are now examining children in the public schools, and find all ranges of intelligence from imbecility to genius. We are told that the intelligence quotient of a child rarely changes, so that we are enabled to tell early in his life what the limit of intelligence of any person will be, and in a general way to what class of vocation he is best fitted, and, to a certain extent, destined. When the tests for vocational guidance are completed and developed, each boy and girl in school will be assigned to the vocation for which he is fitted, and, presuming that the tests are really efficient, he will in the future not attempt any work too advanced for his ability and hence make a failure of it.

neither will he be found in an occupation too elementary for his ability and hence be dissatisfied. Economically nothing could be more desirable. All differences in accomplishments or results from that which the intelligence quotients would indicate would be due to certain traits of character which intelligence tests do not measure, viz.: industry, perseverance, thoroughness, honesty.

One's intelligence quotient will eventually be known and persons will be classed thereby. Those of high intelligence will be directed into lines of occupation which call for leadership. Those persons will naturally be placed in the professions, and in leading positions in industry, commerce, and politics. Each person will then be directed on a scale of intelligence down to those whose work is of the most routine character of which an imbecile is capable. But what effect will this have on our so-called democracy? It must inevitably destroy universal adult suffrage, by cutting off at least 25 per cent. of the adults, those whose intelligence is so low as to be incapable of comprehending the significance of the ballot. On the other hand, it will throw the burden and responsibility of government where it belongs, on those of high intelligence, and we come back again to the rule of the aristocracy—this time the real and total aristocracy. For its own salvation the state must assume the obligation and responsibility of selecting this intellectual aristocracy, and having selected it see that it is properly trained.

Some further questions naturally arise from this new state of affairs, the chief among which is this: would not those of low mentality rebel, and cause a revolution which would throw the government into their hands and thus cause a condition of affairs worse, even, than could be imagined? There are three reasons why this would not likely be so. In the first place that portion of the population of lower mentality would be engaged in occupations for which they would be perfectly fitted and consequently they would be contented—contented people do not rebel. In the second place it has been shown quite conclusively, that people of low mentality do not object to being governed by others, provided the government is benevolent. In the third place they would lack leaders of intelligence to incite or to direct any rebellion, and consequently it would not be started, or if started would not be successful. Of course, there would always be the possibility of some one of the aristocracy descending to become a demagogue, and leading those of low mentality for the sake of personal gain, but this simply emphasizes the necessity of moral training along with the intellectual.

The value of an intellectual aristocracy would be that it would be open, the intellectually superior being selected early in life and trained for special service, and not an aristocracy dependent upon accident of birth, wealth, or favor. Of all bases for an aristocracy none better could be found. In such a society it would then be seen whether the aristocracy would accept the responsibility of parenthood in order to perpetuate itself, and at the same time if the mentally unfit and those of low mentality would be prevented from propagating their kind, for in such a scheme only is there hope for the race. There is only one objection to this last statement, viz: "that in such a scheme only is there hope of the race," and that is the general scheme of development of the race. Man has not always been as intelligent as now; he has developed this intelligence, and if this individual development is still continuing, there may yet be another basis for hope; but we know the scheme of

breeding to be a far more rapid method of obtaining results, and if both methods are still to be depended upon they are both needed to bring the race to a high intellectual plane.

For many years we have heard of the great advantage of education because so many college graduates occupied positions of influence and power. It has been frequently pointed out that although only a very small percentage of persons go to college, a very large percentage of those who are sufficiently successful to have their names in "Who's Who" are college graduates. In the past we have credited this almost wholly to the training received in college, and undoubtedly this was a factor, but the discovery that only 15 per cent. of the people have sufficient intelligence to get through college is enlightening. These men and women are the intellectual aristocracy, and those who have graduated from college, in addition to belonging to this class, have had a training which should better fit them for successful endeavor.

Our college men must be a part of the 15 per cent. necessarily, so while the intelligentsia may be found elsewhere they are sure to be found, and to be found in greater proportions, in our colleges. There comes, then, the recognition of the heavy responsibility of the colleges to train these men—these choice, selected men—so as to enable them to render the greatest service. This training must be along two lines, general training and moral training, and both should be thoroughly adapted to fit this intellectual aristocracy to do the work and to encourage them to accept the responsibility.

1. *General Training.*

It is a common idea that the kind and form of education which colleges and universities, as well as the public schools, should give is well known and definitely determined, and that the only problem for the colleges and universities is how best to give this definite form of education in the most effective way. The most effective way, in the minds of most people, is to be found in good teachers and well equipped laboratories. Nothing could be further from the truth; of course good teachers and well equipped laboratories will always be valuable, but what the teachers should teach, and how the laboratories should be conducted are still matters for experiment and discussion. If we are teaching the wrong subjects, the better the teachers the more disastrous the result. We speak of being conservative in our theology and in our philosophy, but compared with education these are most liberal. Our curricula have not changed much in the last millenium! It is true we have made some advance in the content and material of the subjects taught, but there has been practically no change in the subjects themselves. The reason people think that educationalists know what should be taught and how, is because there has been little change century by century. We teach what we do because it has always been taught, or because some other university has been teaching it. We lack courage to make changes in the curriculum which we think ought to be made, or to vary our methods in favor of those which we know should be used. As a matter of fact, we don't know what should be taught, and we do not care to acknowledge it.

Undoubtedly there is one place where our methods must be changed. Our whole system is strong on the receptive side, and weak on the creative side, and this although we realize that when our sons and daughters leave the college or the university we expect them to produce results in initiative and creation. This is one of the criticisms which foreign educators have made of our educational work. For ex-

ample. Miss Burstall (Impressions of American Education in 1908, p. 43) says "European writers on America have often noticed the comparative scarcity of the highest type of intellectual power among so large and intelligent a population, selected and mixed by immigration and possessing for so long the advantages of a widely diffused education. They ought to produce thinkers, artists, poets, and philosophers, ... creative powers in every intellectual sphere. Can it be the fault of their education that as yet they do not? Are ideas of political equality reducing all to a common level?" It is true that the doctrine of equality has no place for people of extraordinary accomplishments, but we must look further than this for the explanation. Not infrequently we find young men, who have made only pass marks in their college course, and have made themselves conspicuous by breaches of discipline, after college days in practical life take a prominent part as leaders and executives. The reason is plain; they were not strong on the receptive side, and the curriculum presenting little or no opportunity for the exercise of a strong creative tendency, this tendency has found expression in action which did not meet with faculty approval. Not long ago, one of our oldest and most conservative Eastern universities conferred an honorary degree upon a man, whom, as a student, this same university had expelled. We are now laying some emphasis on extra curricular activities as one outlet for creative tendencies, but these are more or less hap-hazard and undirected, and frequently those who most need the training fail to receive it. In some way, more attention must be given to this requirement, and the college which accepts the responsibility for training the intellectual aristocracy must furnish a curriculum which contains the possibility of training along active, constructive, and creative lines.

The lack of creative work among our American college graduates has been laid to the charge of our too rigid oversight and direction of the student's time, leaving little or no opportunity for individual initiative. It is true that the old-fashioned exercise of meditation seems to be a lost art, and if a student were observed sitting quietly in his room for an hour, lost in contemplation, it would be ample justification for an emergency call for the university physician. (We do not trust the student, and we fear if his time is not continually directed it will be wasted.) We feel sure that if the American student were given the option of attending classes or not, like the English university student, the decision would always be in the negative. May we not be mistaken in this? Might it not be well to allow the upper classmen in our colleges certain time for creative work, and for study along lines of individual preference which may not be definitely provided for in our classes?

Our college curricula are so poorly suited to so many students that one is tempted to ask at times if they are really anything more than a series of mental tests, selecting the intelligent students. They certainly accomplish this at any rate. Perhaps this also was at the root of the doctrine of formal discipline. We thought at one time that it did not matter what a person studied so long as he studied, and passed his examinations. Persons who did this were successful in after years. By recognizing the studies, whatever they were, as mental tests, we can understand the doctrine as a "post hoc." The doctrine was combatted by those who held that only those mental factors which were exercised in the particular study were aided by that study; but if this contention were so, the doctrine of formal discipline

would still be substantially true, for the necessity of using all mental factors in every mental act would make the doctrine true whether one held the old view or the new one. I have a friend, a lawyer, who maintains that whether a person is to be a clergyman or an engineer, there is no training which can compare with the study of Greek, and that wrestling with Greek roots is the mental exercise required for any occupation. Perhaps what he found out was that a person mentally able to wrestle successfully with Greek roots was mentally able to master any subject—in other words, his Greek roots were his principal mental test.

We return to the question, what is education? We are not yet agreed as to its aim, and until this is decided it is frankly impossible to determine the means. We agree that the training for those of low mentality must differ from that given to the intellectual aristocracy, and, in fact, we are pretty well agreed that the standardization of education is good principally as a mental test. When we found that, contrary to the constitution, the Creator had failed to make all men equal, we proceeded to correct this mistake through our schools and colleges. The attempt has not yet proved an unqualified success. This standardization is far from applicable to all persons, each one of whom is differently endowed, and whose individuality and idiosyncrasies properly developed and trained might be made a valuable contribution to society. Forcing all children to master the same elements in the public schools seems foolish enough, but demanding that training for practical life shall be by the same process is absurd. The individuals who compose our intellectual aristocracy are not only varied in attainment, but must therefore be fitted to do different work, and to force them through the same mill is doing violence to training which no educational theories can justify. Education will have to be taken far more seriously than at present before society will furnish the necessary means for individual training, and perhaps, after all, that is not necessary. Individual examination and prescription may classify individuals so that education may not be any more expensive while at the same time being definitely appropriate.

Standardization of education was not a deliberate program so much as a sudden expediency due to the popularization of education and the necessity of providing for large numbers. In older days when there were fewer educated persons, and education was conducted by governesses and tutors, the individuality was respected. In Plato's solution of the educational problem this was clearly recognized. In his "Republic" "a state is constituted wherein one may find the embodiment of his own reason; through which one may work out the highest good as determined by his nature; and in which therefore one may secure the widest freedom for the expression of his own individuality. Since the fullest possible scope was given for development, such limitations as there are exist by reason of the limitation natural to the personality of each." (Textbook in the History of Education—Munroe, p. 139).

The training given those of low mentality is that of routine work, and the lower the mentality the more routine the training must be. On the contrary, the training which must be given those of highest mentality in order to make its greatest contribution to society is that which will enable them to meet a unique situation. This has been the value of the broad arts course, where the student is enabled to come in contact with all kinds of subjects

and to solve all kinds of problems. The situation which is incomprehensible to those who have not had the broad training may not seem absolutely unique to the man of wide knowledge. Problem work is the contribution we try to make to creative thinking, but in most of our colleges this is neglected in favor of purely receptive work. Ability to meet a unique situation, which the arts course is supposed to develop, is the contribution which the trained man makes to society, but in addition to this is the value of such a course to the man himself. In this course he should get a background for life so that it may be richer and grander, and he knows enough to appreciate for his own sake the different experiences; what to the uneducated means nothing, to him means utility and order and beauty. If this is the double aim, what should be the means to accomplish it? We are working and struggling to find it, even if conservatively and timidly, and the time has come to approach it more vigorously and courageously.

After trying to solve this problem theoretically, the next step of a scientific nature is to try out our theories by experiment. The difficulty of experiment is that of comparison. It is impossible to find two persons exactly alike upon whom to try two different kinds of education, and even then the results of the education may not be easily measured. However, with the methods of examination upon which we are now devoting so much time, it is hoped that we may be able to classify our human material and to compare the results of the various kinds of education. In order to prescribe the various kinds, however, we must provide institutions to carry on different courses, in other words, to experiment. This must necessarily extend over a large number of years, and if one institution should fail in its form it still would have contributed something to the study by the process of elimination, although no institution wishes to be in this failing class.

The form of experiment upon which most attention is now being placed is that of providing sufficient work for the brightest students. This is being attempted on the basis of the English Honors System, and has probably been best worked out in America in the University of Toronto. An honors man there must practically put in an extra year for matriculation, takes a different course from the pass man, with special classes, his work is more definitely systematized and specialized, and an honors B. A. has a training such as only a man of high mentality could assimilate. In short, a B. A. from Toronto may mean anything from a student who has attained a pass by the mercy and clemency of his instructors to one who has passed the preliminary examinations for a Ph. D. at Harvard or Yale. If it were only understood what a B. A. with honors at that university means, it might be sufficient distinction, but where the system is not in vogue, it is thought to mean no more than the B. A. with honors in other universities and colleges, and is consequently not sufficiently distinctive. However, the fact remains that an honest attempt is being made to solve the problem of providing an education for the superior student, who is the hope of our race. Certain United States colleges are attempting similar but not identical experiments, also based on the English system, among which, for example, is Smith College.

Again, other colleges are endeavoring to specialize so as to give a distinctive form of education, not claiming that as a superior form, but striving to give that form in the best way. Not long ago one of our New England colleges of good reputation

announced that in the future it would devote itself to the classical form of education and endeavor to specialize in that. How this experiment will work out is problematical, but there is this to be said, if anyone wishes that form of education it could probably best be obtained where an attempt is made to specialize in it. The tutorial system at Princeton is another experiment which, being based on a portion of the English system, is being worked out on American lines. In some colleges attempts are being made to minister in a special way to a very special class, such as in the summer school in government at Williams, and it is not unlikely that this may become more common. It would be folly for other colleges or universities to establish a school similar to that at Williams, unless the great distances on this continent made it advisable, but other colleges will be inspired to minister to other special classes. Other efforts to solve the problem might be mentioned, but it seems as though they are still too few. Is it not advisable for other colleges to take other forms of specialization, so that the country may be served with many forms of education from which to choose, rather than with one form carried on with more or less efficiency by many colleges?

We have ever with us the mooted question of the value or detriment of examinations. We are told by some that the bright students do not need them and that they are only a kind of machinery to force the dull student to his utmost. Well, perhaps so; but if the college course is a training for practical life, examinations should have their place. The physician faces his examination, without time for preparation, when he meets an emergency; the lawyer faces his examination when his opponent in court cites cases and quotes law; the engineer faces his examination when the safety of a bridge is imperilled. Life is a series of examinations, and no practice for them should be omitted. The question comes, however, whether the examinations now given are of the proper character, but if instead of set examinations for which preparation is made there might be given problem examinations unannounced—somewhat more nearly approximating the examinations of practical life.

Another problem for experiment is the number of students which can be profitably served at any one institution without stunting individuality, and at the same time give the enthusiasm common to many working together at the same task. Cardinal Newman once said, "A university is not a school, it is an atmosphere." Very good! but the atmosphere may be so rare as to give one heart failure, or it may be so close as to be oppressive. This we know; the large universities by dividing up classes and using other means, such as tutors and proctors, are trying to obtain the advantages of a small college, while Dean Briggs of Harvard has facetiously remarked that "the small colleges are always proclaiming the advantages of smallness in order to become larger." Well, this goes to show that it is not yet determined what are the size, the necessary equipment, and the best methods for handling students as far as numbers are concerned, and these are problems to be worked out by experiment. It seems, however, that when 4,000 freshmen are crowded into one institution the limit has been passed. I have but hinted at a few of the problems which education has to solve. These with others should be attacked and colleges and universities should gladly cooperate in experiments to solve them.

We must not forget that the solving of these problems is not simply an educational victory of academic interest, but is absolutely necessary for the proper training

of the intellectual aristocracy, and, therefore, for the development and training of the race. Nor is it simply a matter of training for government, although it is that, but in addition to proper training for government the best training must be given for the furtherance of science and discovery, the advancement of industry and commerce, and the amelioration and improvement of social conditions in order that the people as a whole may be improved in quality and led to get the most out of every experience of life.

It seems hardly necessary to add that the solution of these problems will not be found by any one institution, far less by any one individual; nor is it likely that they will be found in our time. It is because of the difficulty of the problem and the length of time necessary for their solution that every individual interested in education and every educational institution should bend their energies to contribute some element in order that solutions may be found. A factor from this source, another from a far distant source, here a little and there a little, gathered and contributed will finally give us a method of developing in the best way these God-given powers for the benefit of the whole race.

II. Moral Training.

Bryce says (p. 549 f.) "Nature is always tending to throw power into the hands of the few, and the few always tend by a like natural process to solidify into a class, as the vapors rising from the earth gather into clouds. Fortunately the class also, by a like process, is always tending to dissolve. The old oligarchies of the sword lasted longest, because in rude feudal times they had seized and anchored themselves to the land. The more recent oligarchies of the purse are less stable, because new men are always pressing in, and movable paper wealth may soon pass away from the descendants of those who acquired it. The oligarchy of intellect is still more fluid: talent easily enters it, and talent is not transmissible like the shares in a railroad. Philosophers who disliked the oligarchies of rank and feared the plutocracies that succeeded them have dreamed of an aristocracy of intellect as the best kind of government, but though they knew that a state needs uprightness and public spirit as well as intellect in the rulers, they never succeeded in showing how the possessors of these qualities are to be found and chosen, and they forgot that to both sets of qualities there must be added another which only experience tests, that is strength, the power to move and control the minds and wills of men. 'The kingdom of heaven is taken by violence, and the violent take it by force.'" It is not enough then that the rule should be by the few, but it must be by the best. It must not simply be an oligarchy, but it must be by an aristocracy. Of the oligarchy as such, he says (p. 539), "Class rule is essentially selfish and arrogant, perhaps even insolent, and the smaller the class is, so much the more arrogant. It judges questions from the point of view of its own interest, and seldom does more for the classes beneath it than it feels to be demanded by its own safety. Legislation is stained by this class color, and administration is likely to suffer from the personal influence which members of the dominant group exert on behalf of their friends."

Mazzini (quoted by Bryce, p. 555 note) describes democracy as "the progress of all through all under the leading of the best and wisest." Again he says, "authority is sacred when consecrated by genius and virtue." That is it, our intellectual aristocracy must not only be trained along intellectual lines, but along moral lines as well, and those who have been endowed

with high mental powers must accept responsibility for government for the benefit of all the people, and this can only be done by means of careful and broad moral training.

Ruskin emphasizes this when he says "The object of education is not so much to teach people to know what they otherwise would not know, as to teach them to behave as they would not otherwise behave." This makes the end of education wholly moral. We can at least say that when educated people behave as though they had no responsibility to others, and as not interested in the welfare of less fortunate people, then in their case education has missed the mark.

It is interesting to note that great intellectual movements and great moral and religious movements have never been far separated. We see it in the founding of colleges in this country. We see it best in the connection between the renaissance and the reformation. It is not an accident, it is a natural union. In moral training reference is made not to small things but to the great responsibilities of life. The criminal convicted of small crimes is almost invariably from among those of low mentality. The following is a quotation from the *Literary Digest* (April 22, 1922, p. 11): "The superintendent of New York State's reformatories says that of 22,000 criminals whom he examined, but few were college graduates, while in a group of 1,000 prisoners only 7 per cent. had high school education, 25 per cent. had finished grammar school, and 64 per cent. had attended only primary grades. 'Here is evidence,' declares the *Brooklyn Eagle*, 'that even a moderate amount of schooling is a positive and active deterrent to crime.'" Unfortunately the *Brooklyn Eagle* has not read the evidence correctly. Here is evidence that the largest numbers of criminals are those of low mentality, for children leave school mostly for the reason that they are not mentally able to continue. So in speaking of moral training, I am not referring to the gross crimes which precipitate one into the toils of the law—general intelligence seems to take care of that—but I refer to the more subtle and more important deflections from the course of moral rectitude, the sins of omission, which are usually not recognized as crimes by the state.

In the moral training demanded for an intellectual aristocracy, there must be instilled the great ideas and ideals of responsibility. The special gifts are not for selfish use and individual consumption but for the race, and perhaps especially for the benefit of those who are less fortunate. It must be service to the state for the helpfulness of all. The object of a college or university training is not to develop a self-centered culture, but to use the acquired culture, knowledge and discipline in the service of one's fellow men. Above all others, the educated man should become socially efficient in all that that means. To quote a recent most interesting book (Ellwood, The Reconstruction of Religion, p. 180) "Self interest subordinated to community interest and ultimately to the interest of humanity, self-development for the sake of aiding the development of humanity is the plain teaching of both social science and social religion." The aristocracy must take interest in and a share in government with fine altruistic ideals, and shun as unworthy of intelligence the crass, selfish spirit so characteristic of the subnormal.

We are told by those who have made a special study of the matter that it is possible that human individual development has reached the limit and that the furtherance of the race must now be through social development. If this means anything it must mean that our intellectual aristoc-

racy shall devote itself to the benefit of the race, solving its problems and initiating improvements, otherwise the whole scheme of development must end. Moral issues then come to be paramount, and the final and most important chapters of the development of the race are strictly dependent on them. Without these moral implications the services of the mentally fittest are lost. It is thus supremely important—yes, imperative—that our intellectual aristocracy should have the highest and best moral training, for unto whomsoever much is given of him shall be much required.

We are, let us hope, past the day, if indeed it has ever been, when one should make any apologies for the teaching of Christian ideals in connection with a college or university. There, above all places, should the great Christian principles be explained and emphasized, for there can they be of most benefit, and one should hear re-echo from the heart of every college man the words of Him who came not to be ministered unto but to minister, "And for their sake I sanctify myself." As we bow our heads we hear the voice of prayer, "Father, I pray not for the world, but for those whom thou hast chosen out of the world." Who are "the chosen out of the world" but those who have been especially endowed and specially trained for service for their fellowmen and for the advancement of the kingdom of God?

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A JOB ANALYSIS OF VOCATIONAL COUNSELING

FOR a number of years there have been attempts, more or less successful, to bring about a closer coordination between the work of the schools and the needs of industry. The "hard-headed" business man has complained that the "product of the school"—the boy or girl—is not ready and prepared for the duties which he is called upon to perform when he enters the office or shop. On the other hand the school has protested that even the business man does not know exactly what he wants. When pressed for particulars he falls back on generalities such as—I want a boy who is dependable, honest, punctual, neat, accurate, etc.

Such recriminations have usually been the result of a policy of mutual aloofness that has been too long prevalent. The schoolman has never met the business man across the table at a committee meeting, and on the other hand the business man has kept himself aloof from that "visionary and impractical" person, the school man.

During the last few years there has been a very encouraging development in Pittsburgh, looking to a better mutual understanding of these two sides of this question. In the first place, Pittsburgh has a Board of Education that is heartily supporting its superintendent of schools in his sympathetic attitude toward real vocational education, and in the next place there is in this city a very strong and active chapter of the National Association of Corporation Training. As a consequence, regular meetings of representatives from industry and the schools have been held and during the last year a broad and comprehensive program has been carried out which included study along the following four lines:

1. Committee on vocational analysis.
2. Committee on vocational demands.
3. Committee on the functions of the public school in training for vocations.
4. Committee on the functions of the industries in providing training for employees.

The names of these committees suggests the different lines of investigation which were carried on, but it can not indicate the live interest and energy which was manifested in the general meetings of the group as well as in the numerous sub-committee meetings which were held throughout the year.

It was in connection with the work of committee three, on the functions of the public school in training for vocations that the question arose as to what are the particular duties of the vocational counselors in the schools. In an open meeting during the previous year, someone in the industrial group had declared that "the reason there are so many misfits in industry is because the vocational counselors do not know their job." Consequently there was a real desire on the part of the school people to show that they do know their duties and have a much fuller conception of their task than the average man in the industrial field.

The sub-committee was composed of two members, Mr. James H. Green, representing the department stores of the city, and the writer, representing the counselors. Despite the energetic efforts of Mr. Green he was unable to secure any clear cut, definite statements from the various members of the industrial and commercial group. On the other hand the school people responded promptly and the following report is a compilation of their replies. The writer, as committee chairman, edited these replies, eliminating duplications and grouping them under the different headings as they appear below. The report, then, is not a statement of all the duties which every counselor in the Pittsburgh high schools is called on to perform, but it is rather a statement of the sum total of the various duties which are performed by all of them.

It is believed that one of the results of this report will be to bring about more uniformity in the duties and activities of the vocational counselors. Up to the present time there has been no such uniformity or standardization. Conditions have varied in different schools and although it is recognized that there should be no curtailing of individual initiative, yet at the same time the guidance work in the Pittsburgh schools has grown to such proportions that the time has come when emphasis may be laid on greater similarity of duties. The report as adopted by the National Association of Corporation Training, Pittsburgh Chapter, follows:

REPORT OF COMMITTEE
ON
DUTIES OF VOCATIONAL COUNSELORS

Foreword: This report is based on expressions and statements of the vocational counselors of the Pittsburgh, Pa. high schools, and is a summary of the various duties which they consider a part of their work. No attempt has been made to state these duties in the exact form in which they were presented to the committee. It has been thought wise to organize them under the following outline:

Duties of Vocational Counselors

I. It is the duty of the Vocational Counselors to know:
   1. Students.
      a. Know vocational and educational plans of students.
      b. Follow up progress of pupils in school.
      c. Keep in touch with attendance, tardiness or subject failures, to visit homes in order to discover causes and to effect readjustment of conditions underlying such records.
      d. Know why students drop out of school.
      e. Anticipate withdrawals from school if possible.
   2. Employment requirements and opportunities.
      a. Be famliar with reference books, materials for personal use as well as for pupils'.
      b. Visit places of employment from which calls come for high school pupils, in

order to learn about conditions of employment, opportunities for advancement, etc.

3. Educational requirements and opportunities.
   a. Evening schools, both private and public.
   b. Special schools or special courses, universities, technical schools, business schools, trade courses, correspondence, etc.
   c. Requirements for admission to college or universities.
   d. Requirements for various professions, trades, occupations.

II. It is the duty of the vocational counselor to make personal contacts with students.
1. Meet prospective high school pupils to help them plan their high school courses in accordance with future vocational and educational plans.
2. Help students to get vocational information.
   a. Through personal interviews with counselor.
   b. Through vocational talks to students by outside speakers.
   c. Through reference books and magazines.
   d. Through cooperation with librarians.
   e. By arranging for individual interviews with members of different vocations for interested students.
3. Adjust schedules to make school work more profitable for students.
4. Get pupils interested in higher education.
5. Point out lack of opportunity for untrained workers vs. the openings for trained workers.
6. Conference with pupils who are failing.
7. Conference with pupils who are completing their high school course to make the transition to employment more easy.

III. It is the duty of the counselor to make placements (either through his own unaided efforts or in cooperation with the central placement bureau).
1. After school and Saturday work.
2. Part time employment.
   Daily or week about.
3. Full time employment.

IV. It is the duty of the counselor to perform certain routine and clerical duties.
1. Fill out necessary blanks and papers for drop-outs (presence of parent required).
2. Keep record of withdrawals.
3. Keep on file the various forms of the Department of Vocational Guidance.
4. Make regular reports to the director.
5. Make reports to the placement offices.

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EDUCATIONAL EVENTS

A CONFERENCE ON AMERICAN MANPOWER

SECRETARY OF WAR WEEKS has called a conference of educators and other civilian workers to discuss the "mental, moral and physical development of youth." The conference will meet at Washington November 16, and will be attended by representatives of educational institutions, the Boy Scouts, Y. M. C. A., Red Cross, national, state and municipal authorities.

In announcing the conference Mr. Weeks said, as quoted in the New York *Times:*

The need for a concerted effort to increase the physical fitness of the young men of our country was evidenced this summer, when it was found in some sections of the country the rate of physical defectives exceeded 100 per 1,000 of the young men who applied to attend the citizens' military training camps.

Up to and including a certain age—say, the secondary school age—the training and development of the boy must devolve almost entirely on non-federal agencies, but it is important to know how the federal government can assist. Accordingly, it is proposed that one committee of the conference shall charge itself especially with the training applicable to boys up to and including the secondary school age, and also the amount and kind of assistance the federal government can and should render in this phase of the training.

The War Department desires to operate to the maximum advantage those of its agencies which exercise any direction of the young men of the nation. Endeavor has been made already to so shape training programs, especially of the Reserve Officers' Training Corps and citizens' military training camps, as to give the greatest benefit to the individual.

In view of these facts it was deemed proper for the War Department to undertake the initiative for a conference having possibilities of such general value. Development in young manhood of

vigorous and disciplined mind and body, cooperative spirit and sense of obligation and duty to country assures the highest type of citizen—and gives strength to the nation.

SHALL MASSACHUSETTS HAVE A STATE UNIVERSITY?

Governor Cox, of Massachusetts, has appointed a special commission of seven members to study "the opportunities and facilities for higher education" in that state, with special reference to the question often raised: Shall Massachusetts have a state university? The members of the commission are as follows:

President Lemuel H. Murlin, of Boston University, *chairman;* H. L. Belisle, superintendent of schools at Fall River, *secretary;* Rev. William Devlin, president of Boston College; Mrs. George H. Baker, of Concord; J. F. Driscoll, labor leader; Felix Vorenberg, general manager at Gilchrist's, and Charlton D. Richardson, superintendent of schools at East Brookfield. Dr. George F. Zook, chief of the Division of Higher Education, United States Bureau of Education, will direct the survey for the commission. He will have the assistance of special investigators.

TEACHERS COLLEGE SCHOOL OF PRACTICAL ARTS DISCONTINUES FRESHMAN AND SOPHOMORE YEARS

At a meeting of the trustees of Teachers College, Columbia University, on October 19, it was decided to increase by two years the requirements for admission to the School of Practical Arts by discontinuing the freshman and sophomore years of instruction. The School of Practical Arts is the division of Teachers College which trains teachers of home economics, fine arts, physical training, music, nursing and allied subjects. Heretofore students could enter the freshman class directly after graduation from high school, but by the new arrangement prospective students must now obtain their freshman and sophomore training in some other college or technical school, after which they may enter the School of Practical Arts as juniors.

The School of Practical Arts will thus limit its instruction to juniors, seniors and graduate students. It will be two years before the new requirements are completely in effect. This fall was the last opportunity to enter as a freshman. The present freshman class will be carried through, so that a sophomore year will be offered for 1923-24. New students who have had a year's college work elsewhere may join the sophomore class next fall. By the fall of 1924 the new regulations will be fully effective, only juniors or those beyond being admitted.

This action was made necessary, it is explained, by the astonishingly rapid growth in the enrollment of the School of practical Arts during the past few years, which for some time has overtaxed all the facilities of the institution. The School of Practical Arts was established just ten years ago with an enrollment of 580 students. To-day the enrollment is over 2,000 students, of whom 330 are taking graduate instruction in the various fields offered. For a number of years there have been increasing demands upon the School of Practical Arts for advanced instruction. The rapid growth of departments of practical arts in colleges and universities throughout the country has so increased the number of opportunities for the first two years of training in this field that the trustees feel that it is now far more important that Teachers College should conserve its resources for instruction in advance of that offered elsewhere.

This action affects only the School of Practical Arts. The School of Education of Teachers College has for some time confined its instruction to advanced students. This year over 1,000 graduate students are attending the School of Education, constituting the largest post-graduate enrollment of any similar institution in the world. The total enrollment of Teachers College this fall in all departments is over 3,800, an increase of about 400 students over last fall.

BRYN MAWR INSTALLS MISS PARK

Dr. Marion Edwards Park was inaugurated as the third president of Bryn Mawr College at ceremonies held at Bryn Mawr on October 21. About 150 delegates, representing 94 universities and colleges and 28 learned societies, were present. The attendance of alumnæ and friends was large.

The speakers were Dr. James Rowland Angell, president of Yale University, Dr. William Allan Neilson, president of Smith College, and Dr. William Wistar Comfort, president of Haverford College. Dr. Park was inducted into office by Dr. Rufus L. Jones, of Haverford, president of the board of trustees of Bryn Mawr.

Dr. Jones read the following cablegram from Dr. M. Carey Thomas, the former president, who is in Europe: "Heartiest congratulations to Bryn Mawr College on her new president. Best wishes for long and prosperous administration and as much happiness in working for the college as I had."

In her inaugural address President Park said:

Today the woman's college justifies its existence by claiming to do a service to the community. But the community has a right to demand what the college shall do. The barriers that have been set up by colleges to exclude the less well prepared should be surmountable by straightforward and active intelligence plus diligence that there shall be no possible charge of a shibboleth of training administered by schools of a certain kind or by special teachers who are in the secret. . . .

It is especially the business of the woman's college to keep in mind the profession of teaching, to call out and encourage the students who show that combination of intelligence and imagination necessary for the good teacher and see that she is directed into the proper preparation.

As for Bryn Mawr's own part in meeting the demands of the public, she longs in the coming years to send her graduates to the world outside, a group of increasingly reasonable, reasoning, just-minded women with health and energy and persistence and intelligence.

THE HARVARD-BOSTON UNIVERSITY PLAN OF COURSES FOR TEACHERS

In the belief that New England school teachers are eager for professional training but that most of them are too busy to attend schools of education, Harvard and Boston University have launched a plan for bringing teacher-training courses to the teacher. These two institutions are going to offer extension courses for teachers in service wherever throughout Massachusetts, and if possible throughout New England, the teachers can be gathered together.

John J. Mahoney, professor of education at Boston University and formerly principal of the State Normal School at Lowell and state supervisor of Americanization, will act as director of these extension courses on behalf of both the School of Education of Boston University and the Harvard Graduate School of Education. In a statement made public October 5 Mr. Mahoney said:

The teacher who is to be really happy in his or her work must continue to learn. Progressive school systems everywhere are expecting professional improvement on the part of teachers and school officers, and are, in many cases, offering inducements to this end. And teachers generally are disposed to avail themselves of opportunities for improvement. For ten months in the year, however, teachers are very busy people, and lack the time and strength to go where these opportunities are offered.

The need then, clearly, is to bring the school to the teacher instead of compelling the teacher to go to the school. Hence, extension service.

Extension service for teachers is not new in Massachusetts. For several years past, the State Department of Education has been doing splendid work in this field. This agency has pointed the way, and the time now seems right for university schools of education to enter the field for the purpose of further extending and enriching the program of teacher-training. The idea is to offer late afternoon or evening and Saturday morning courses for teachers in service. I shall be glad to confer personally with groups of teachers interested, and so far as possible courses will be organized as fast as the demand for them is manifest, and will meet wherever the teachers can best be gathered together.

The distinguishing features of the B. U.-Harvard extension courses are that they are all of university grade, that those who complete them successfully will receive credit toward a college degree, and that the faculty will be drawn from the teaching staff at Harvard, B. U., and other New England schools of education and from leaders of administration, supervision and teaching from the field.

We expect to cover some such fields as these: methods of teaching special subjects such as arithmetic, English, history, etc.; teaching methods and problems in the junior high school, the senior high school, and the elementary school;

educational psychology and statistics; educational philosophy and sociology; educational administration; vocational education and guidance; and special movements and developments such as the project method and education for better citizenship. But the list of courses to be offered will largely depend on the needs that are revealed as the new work develops. If teachers will write to me at 99 Newbury Street, Boston, I shall be glad to give them further information.

The purpose of these extension courses is to enable teachers to improve their every-day teaching. No teacher training is worthwhile that can not be translated into practice. Every course offered ought to yield practical results for those who are prepared to undertake it. The two schools of education cooperating are committed to these principles.

As an indication of the way this project has already been received throughout Massachusetts, Mr. Mahoney stated that classes have been already organized in Haverhill, Lynn, Wakefield, Medford, Malden, Melrose, Bridgewater and Chicopee, and that plans are now under way for extending this work to other communities.

THE LUSK LAWS AND NEW YORK CITY TEACHERS

THE New York City Teachers Union, through Dr. Henry R. Linville, its president, on October 17 sent the following letter to Dr. Frank P. Graves, commissioner of education of the State of New York:

Dr. Frank P. Graves,
Commissioner of Education,
Albany, New York:

My dear Sir:

When the Lusk law on "Additional Qualifications of Teachers" was passed by the legislature and signed by Governor Miller, the teachers and the public were given to understand that the purpose of the law was to discover and bring about the dismissal of teachers who are immoral and those who subscribe to the principle of the overthrow of government by force and violence. The teachers of New York are finding that in the administration of the law no teacher is known to have been dismissed for immorality, and none for believing in the overthrow of government by force and violence.

Apparently, the stated purpose of the law has been forgotten. Instead, some New York teachers are being advertised as persons whose loyalty is suspected. This is being done by your department by withholding certificates of character and loyalty in the cases of at least twenty teachers who are members of the Teachers Union. Under the Lusk law teachers who are not certified as moral and loyal shall not retain their positions.

At the suggestion of the Teachers Union most of these members have written to you repeatedly. Some have forwarded registered letters. But so far as reported to the office of the Teachers Union no teacher has received reply to the question as to why the certificate is being withheld.

It appears, however, that unknown committees are sitting in judgment on these cases. Unknown persons have made charges against our members. The exact nature of these charges, after one to four months, is also unknown to the Teachers Union, or to the members whose character and livelihood are being secretly threatened.

Evil as the Lusk law is conceived to be by the enlightened portion of the community, the Teachers Union submits that an immediate statement is due the public concerning your action under the law in withholding certificates of character and loyalty in the two cases here described:

Austin M. Works, a teacher in the De Witt Clinton High School, was reported by the principal of the school in Class 1 in character and loyalty, when your department called on the principals of the schools for information in this connection in November, 1921.

At the age of thirty-five Mr. Works volunteered to enter the service of the country in the World War. He was beyond the draft age, and had a wife and three children. In July, 1918, Austin Works was commissioned first lieutenant and immediately thereafter went to France. He was assigned to the military intelligence branch of the headquarters at Chaumont, France. He served there until December, 1918, working on the German military codes and cipher dispatches that fell into the hands of the allies.

In December, 1918, Lieutenant Works was ordered to the advanced general headquarters at Trier. Later he was assigned to the department of sanitation and public health and assisted in making a study of the food conditions in the occupied territory. After serving eight months overseas he received his honorable discharge at Camp Dix on May 10, 1919.

Eugene Jackson, a teacher in the DeWitt Clinton High School, was also reported in Class 1 by the principal of the school.

Mr. Jackson enlisted in the service in August, 1918. At that time he was thirty years of age, and had been placed in the limited service class because of defective vision. On September 20, 1918, he was commissioned first lieutenant in the code and cipher department of the military intelligence branch. In October, 1918, he was sent overseas, and served in France and Germany. In

April, 1919, he was returned to the United States, and on April 25, 1919, he was honorably discharged.

It is well known that the military intelligence service required men of undoubted ability and loyalty.

So far as known, there is no charge involving the character of either Lieutenant Works or Lieutenant Jackson. The loyalty of the two men should be sufficiently attested by their military service and by the official statements of the principal of the DeWitt Clinton High School.

Since these men can find out in no other manner, the Teachers Union hereby calls upon you in a public way to answer the question, What charges have you against them?

Very truly yours,

HENRY R. LINVILLE,
President, The Teachers Union

In a statement printed in the New York *Evening Mail* for October 19 Commissioner Graves declared that loyalty certificates had been withheld from many teachers because it had not been possible to reach them on the list.

A CONFERENCE OF HIGH SCHOOL TEACHERS OF BUSINESS

A CONFERENCE of public high school teachers of business subjects and social studies has been called by the United States Bureau of Education to meet at Philadelphia November 3 and 4. The topics of the conference will be: "Organization and conduct of American business; production and marketing; and office management."

The Philadelphia conference is the first of a series of regional conferences of public high school teachers of business subjects and business men. Plans for holding similar conferences in New York and Boston have likewise been made by the Bureau of Education's specialist in commercial education.

Glen Levin Swiggett is chairman of the conferences. He says, in the official statement issued:

The purpose of these conferences is really unique in the history of commercial education in the United States, namely, to correlate standardized business experience and the teaching of high school business subjects, including the social studies. To this end, representatives of organized business, of nation, state or city, are invited to show how their organizations promote and serve business, including the service they can possibly render to high school teachers of business subjects; and representatives of business corporations, to describe and visualize the fundamental operations and practices of business and the methods of solving business problems.

HIGHER STANDARDS FOR COLORADO STATE TEACHERS COLLEGE

ON September 1, 1923, Colorado State Teachers College will put into practice the following regulations concerning admission and graduation:

I. *Admission.*

1. Graduates of high schools accredited by the North Central Association will be required to present a transcript showing the completion of three units of English, and twelve or more units chosen from at least four of the following groups:

a. The social sciences (history, civics, etc.).

b. Foreign languages (not less than two units in any one language to be accepted).

c. Mathematics.

d. The physical sciences (physics, chemistry, biology, botany, zoology, physical geography, physiology, hygiene, agriculture).

e. Music and Art.

f. Commercial subjects.

g. Home economics and the manual arts.

2. Graduates of non-accredited high schools will be required to meet the same conditions except that a standard college entrance test will be required in addition to the transcript.

3. Conditional admission will be granted to students who can present only 14 units in the groups indicated. But these students will be limited to 12 hour college program and required to carry one unit in the high school until the deficiency is removed.

4. Adult students 20 years of age or over may be admitted to the college upon passing an English test and the standard college test provided the score is sufficiently high to assure the college that the student has the ability to carry on college work, even though he may have no high school training or only a partial high school course.

II. *Graduation.*

Students coming up for graduation after September 1, 1923, will be required to meet standard requirements for the certificate or degree no matter what the requirements might have been at the time the student first enrolled in the college.

This will mean that the student must meet the entrance requirements outlined in sections 1, 2, 3 or 4 above. It will also mean cutting off credit for life experience, teaching experience; penmanship, art and music certificates; private lessons in art, music, etc.; and cutting down for the summer term of six weeks.

Until that date the college will continue to grant the two year certificate under the conditions which prevailed at the time a student entered the college, or the A.B. degree under the conditions prevalent at the time the student entered the senior college, or the A.M. degree under the conditions current at the time the student was admitted to the graduate school, provided that this regulation shall not obligate the college to extend the time farther than four years for the completion of the junior college work and another four years for the completion of the senior college.

Students who entered the college October 1, 1921, may have until October 1, 1924 (instead of 1923), to complete their work under the conditions which prevailed at the time of their matriculation.

THE SCHOOLS AND ARMISTICE DAY

THE schools are asked to give special attention to the celebration of Armistice Day, in an appeal issued by J. J. Tigert, United States commissioner of education. Dr. Tigert says:

November 11, Armistice Day, will become more historic as the years pass, and it will take its place with the Fourth of July, the Twenty-second of February and other epochal days in American history. This day marked the hour of democracy's triumph over autocracy and the end of a war that many hoped might end wars. It marked the opening of a great conference in the city of Washington last year which made much progress toward limitation of armaments and toward the substitution of reason for force in the settlement of international disputes.

Wars and destruction spread rapidly. Peace and constructive enterprises require time for consummation. Years of education, gradual development of better understanding, the slow substitution of sympathy for suspicion, the eradication of selfishness and lust for power—all these and more must be brought into the hearts and minds of the peoples of the world before we can have enduring peace.

The schools are the great mills through which we must grind the grist of peace and where those qualities of human character which will bring about the sway of righteousness, justice and reason can best be developed. It seems well, therefore, for our schools to put emphasis upon armistice day as a day of special observance, not only in memory of those heroic soldiers who defended our liberty, but as a day for fostering sentiments of peace.

The October issue of *School Life*, the official publication of the Bureau of Education, contains suggested programs for Armistice Day for various school grades.

FIGHTING ILLITERACY IN POLAND

ACCORDING to statements recently made by the Polish Bureau of Information (New York) a determined fight against illiteracy in Poland is being waged by the Society for the Advancement of Education, an organization established by the Ministry of Religion and Public Instruction. Statistics show that only one-half of the people living in the whole of Poland are able to read and write. The situation is particularly bad in the eastern provinces, where only 39 of every 100 inhabitants are literate.

While a far greater proportion of the people in western and southern Poland are able to read and write, the average for the entire state is brought down by the fact that people in that part of Poland formerly under Russian domination had little opportunity to attend school. In western Poland, formerly under German control, between 95 and 98 per cent. of the people are literate. In southern Poland, formerly under Austrian control, about 60 per cent. are literate, but in this case the percentage is kept down by the fact that in this area is included the eastern portion of Galicia, where illiteracy is more prevalent than in the purely Polish sections. In Congress Poland, the most populous of the three divisions, and formerly controlled by Russia, only 43 per cent. are literate.

The society understands that not only must the children of Poland be given the fullest opportunities for study but that steps must be taken to educate adults. Libraries, lectures and other time-worn methods for teaching adults are not regarded as sufficient and, hence, the establishment of regular courses for adults has been undertaken.

The Ministry of Religion and Public Instruction has lent its support to the society's ef-

deavors and has published many books, maps and pamphlets for distribution among the adult students. Similarly, publications have been issued for the guidance of the instructors who are carrying on the work of teaching elementary subjects to adult students. The efforts of the instructors are not restricted to teaching reading and writing, but they extend to informing students about elementary facts in regard to geography and history.

VERNON KELLOGG
NATIONAL RESEARCH COUNCIL,
WASHINGTON, D. C.

EDUCATIONAL NOTES AND NEWS

T. R. GARTH has been appointed head of the newly created department of education in the University of Denver.

NATHANIEL H. BATCHELDER, headmaster of the Loomis Institute, Windsor, Conn., has been elected secretary of the Headmasters' Association.

THE Reverend Bayard Dodge has been elected president of the American University of Beirut, Syria, to succeed the late Howard S. Bliss.

DR. ROBERT GRANT, of Boston, judge and author, has been elected president of the Harvard Alumni Association to succeed William C. Boyden, of Chicago.

DR. THOMAS M. BALLIET, former dean of the School of Education, New York University, spoke on "Education for the new democracy" at the institute of Collingswood, N. J., on October 18, which was attended by more than 500 public school teachers of Camden County.

PROFESSOR HENRI PIRENNE, rector of the University of Ghent and one of the leading European historians of the present, has arrived in this country as the first Belgian exchange professor to American universities. The Belgian exchange professorship, of which Professor Pirenne is the first holder, was established by the C. R. B. Educational Foundation, an outgrowth of the work of the American Commission for Relief in Belgium carried on during the war by Mr. Hoover and his associates.

FIVE professors of the Medical School of the University of Strasbourg, Alsace, headed by Dean George Weiss, are visiting medical colleges in the United States to study methods and practice in the teaching of medicine. They have come to America under the auspices of the Rockefeller Foundation.

REPORTS from Manila, Philippine Islands, confirm the cable dispatches received in September to the effect that Professor Austin Craig, of the department of history of the University of the Philippines, has been dismissed by the board of regents of the university. The board denied that any infringement of academic freedom was involved in the dismissal.

A MEMORIAL service was held at Princeton University on October 21 in memory of Dr. Howard Crosby Butler, professor of architecture, who died suddenly in Paris following an illness of malarial fever. Professor Butler was director of American excavations at Sardis in Asia Minor.

CONSOLIDATION of all the schools and colleges of the University of Southern California that have hitherto been independent units of the university has been undertaken by President Rufus B. von KleinSmid. The plan as outlined will raise the entrance requirements of each of these schools to approximately the basis of entrance demanded by the College of Liberal Arts. The School of Pharmacy, beginning next year, will require under these rules four years of high school work instead of three. Admittance to the Law School will require two years of College of Liberal Arts work.

THE will of Winthrop Cowdin, of Mount Kisco, N. Y., provides for a fund to increase the salaries of members of the faculty of St. Paul's School at Concord, N. H., from which Mr. Cowdin was graduated in 1881. Mr. Cowdin, in order to create what he described as a memorial fund for these teachers, sets aside his entire residuary estate and directs his wife, as executrix, to pay the interest from this fund yearly toward the remuneration of the teachers of the school. At her death the fund goes to St. Paul's faculty. Mr. Cowdin left an estate estimated to be worth more than

$1,000,000. A fund of $50,000, in memory of the year 1885, when the testator graduated, is left to Harvard University.

Speaking at the fifty-eighth convocation of the University of the State of New York at Buffalo on October 19, Governor Miller said that "there are literally hundreds of thousands of children of school age in our cities on part time because the school population has increased faster than the expenditure of money to provide adequate school facilities, due to other local needs. The cause of the trouble is plain to see. It is too much political influence. The problem is receiving study. It may be that different solutions may be found for different localities. It may be that some state-wide solution may be found. Of course the most extreme remedy that I can think of, and the one which seems to me should be the last resort, would be for the state itself to provide all of the moneys needed to support the public schools everywhere throughout the state, without resort to local taxation for any part. There are objections to this, and one of the most serious objections is the loss that would be likely to result in local interest and local attention to education. Some solution must be found that will assure the maintenance of local interest."

A "message to the public" was the term given a resolution passed by the American Public Health Association at its annual convention in Cleveland on October 18, in which the goal was set of prolonging the expectancy of life throughout the United States at least 20 years in the next half century. The resolution pointed out that "within the last 75 years the average duration of human life has been extended by not less than 15 years in many of the great nations of the world. The improvement in the prospect of long life is not only continuing, but at an accelerated rate."

The National Council of Teachers of English will meet at Chattanooga, Tenn., during the Thanksgiving vacation.

The forty-fourth annual meeting of the Texas State Teachers' Association will be held in Houston on November 30-December 2. Among the speakers on the program will be Professor E. R. A. Seligman, Columbia University; Dr. Arthur Dean, Teachers College, Columbia University; Governor Pat M. Neff, of Texas; Hugh S. Magill, secretary of the International Sunday School Council of Religious Education; State Superintendent Will C. Wood, of California; President Robert E. Vinson, of the University of Texas, and S. M. N. Marrs, the successful candidate for state superintendent in the recent primaries.

The New York Classical Club will hold its first luncheon of the year at the Metropolitan Museum of Art, New York City, at 1 o'clock, November 4. The club has invited representatives of colleges attending the meeting of the College Entrance Examination Board to be present at the luncheon.

A campaign to obtain financial independence for boards of education in all cities of New York State is to be conducted by the New York State Council of School Superintendents during the next session of the legislature. This announcement is made by the legislative committee of the council in a report outlining its legislative program. "Of the 58 cities of the state over 40 have financial separation from the city government in the administration of school expenditures," the report states. "In these cities boards of education are responsible to the people and not to the political party in control of the city government. Boards of education in such cities determine the amount of funds necessary to conduct an efficient system of schools. Our program proposes to extend this system to all cities."

School Life, published by the Bureau of Education, gives the following list of school systems and schools where the platoon plan is in operation: Akron, Ohio; Baltimore, Md.; Birmingham, Ala.; Carson College, Flourtown, Montgomery County, Pa.; Cuyahoga Falls, Ohio; Dallas, Tex.; Denver, Colo.; Detroit, Mich.; Dormont, Pa.; Duluth, Minn.; East Chicago, Ind.; Elizabeth, N. J.; Ellsworth, Pa.; Fort Smith, Ark.; Franklin, N. J.; Gary, Ind.; Greenwich, Conn.; Ithaca, N. Y.; Kalamazoo, Mich.; Kansas City, Mo.; Memphis, Tenn.; Monessen, Pa.; Montclair, N. J.; Mount Vernon, N. Y.; New Castle, Pa.; Newark, N. J.;

Oakmont, Pa.; Passaic, N. J.; Philadelphia (Blaine School and Girard College), Pa.; Pittsburgh, Pa.; Rochester, N. Y.; Rockford, Ill.; Sacramento, Calif.; Seattle, Wash.; Sewickley, Pa.; St. Paul, Minn.; Stuttgart, Ark.; Troy, N. Y.; Warren, Ohio; Washington, D. C.; Wilmington, Del.; Winnetka, Ill.; Youngstown, Ohio. Information from other sources would add Saginaw, Michigan (West Side), which recently opened two new school buildings planned specifically for a platoon program. Hillsborough, Michigan, is also reported as soon to be added to the list.

ANDREW FLEMING WEST, dean of the Princeton Graduate School and head of the American Classical League, announced last week that the sum of $110,000 is now available for the investigation of classical education in American secondary schools. The General Education Board has just appropriated $50,000 to complete the survey, for which $60,000 was previously allowed. The American Classical League is conducting the investigation, which will be completed by January 1, 1924. About 125,000 pupils in about 750 schools, distributed through every state in the United States, are being tested for a period of two years, according to Dean West. Many special studies and controlled experiments are under way. The United States Bureau of Education, the College Entrance Examination Board, the Department of Education of the State of New York, together with other educational bodies and seventeen leading professors of education or psychology are also cooperating in the work. About 7,000 teachers of the classics, English, French and history have given their services without compensation to help in conducting the investigation.

THE exclusion of women from Cambridge University was strongly condemned by the National Council of Women of Great Britain and Ireland, in their recent conference at Cambridge. It was stated in the resolution that Cambridge in this respect stood alone among all universities of the British Empire; and the government was called on to take steps in Parliament, without delay, to secure the admission of women to membership of Cambridge University.

BRITISH newspapers report a threatened strike of school children in Glasgow during September over school feeding. The Glasgow schools have been feeding 10,000 school children per month, but the Scottish Education Department has informed them that they were exceeding their powers in feeding the children. They are supposed to feed only neglected or sick children. Accordingly, only between four hundred and five hundred are now being fed by the education authority.

ENGLISH teachers' organizations have protested vigorously against the decision of the London County Council to place one hundred untrained women in schools to take charge of children under five. It was stated that the women would be given three months' preparation in the schools by the permanent teachers, but the latter pledged themselves not to cooperate with the authority. Recently a notice was sent by the Education Committee to one hundred schools in London stating that these women would be sent for preparation the following week, and requesting the head mistresses to give such preparation. Meetings of teachers urged the headmistresses to send the untrained women back to the County Hall with a letter stating that the headmistresses could not cooperate with the authority. About 1,500 headmistresses and teachers who had pledged themselves at one of the meetings met after school hours the following day at the New County Hall and demonstrated their disapproval of the new scheme. From 4:30 to 5:30 they moved about in front of the main entrance of the hall, all wearing labels of various kinds, some of which were "as large as sandwich-boards," the London *Times* reports. Most of the labels read, "We won't train blacklegs," "Teachers will not work with blacklegs," "No unqualified persons in the schools." All the women who came to the hall to demonstrate were quite good-humored, we learn, but "determined in their attitude." Eight of the headmistresses had that morning sent back the students who had come as "observers" to their schools. The opinion was freely expressed that while there were six hundred qualified girls who were trained teachers at the present moment wanting places, it was a strange thing

that a number of women, between eighteen and thirty, should be put in for three months' training to take over the training of children who needed a trained psychologist.

DISCUSSION

THE NEED FOR A NATIONAL COUNCIL FOR THE SOCIAL STUDIES

A NEW professional organization may fairly be required to defend its right to ask support. The need for a National Council for the Social Studies grows out of existing conditions, and a brief review of the development of these conditions in the teaching of history and the other social subjects is perhaps the best way to reveal that need.

Recent changes have been marked. History has placed an increasing emphasis upon the economic and social aspects, upon the modern, and upon the use of the past in throwing light upon the present. Such a treatment of history demands "new allies," as Professor Robinson aptly called them, and the history teacher has more and more need to draw upon the fields of economics, sociology, commercial geography, and others, as well as upon the older ally, political science. Civics has also been changing radically, and government has so far ceased to be the staple that it is in danger of being crowded out altogether in favor of sociology, economics, and "community civics." And "current events," frequently from the magazines, has become a common feature of school work. Even the colleges are breaking the old lines in this field, notably in such courses as Contemporary Civilization at Columbia.

Meantime there have been many competitive claims and clashing opinions from special groups. The "educator" too often looks suspiciously upon the scholar who knows nothing about schools; and the scholar regards with some contempt the superintendent or professor of education who is ignorant of history and economics and political science. At the same time the historians, economists, sociologists, political scientists, and geographers, through their national associations, have had their committees at work and have made their respective demands upon the schools.

There is need of a National Council embracing in its membership representatives of all these groups, of both the scholars and the school people—teachers, supervisors, superintendents, special students of educational theory and experiment. Such a council should stimulate study and research from a scientific point of view, discover what is already going on, and disseminate among teachers and school officials information about various types of program, experiment, method, practice, etc. It should not undertake to advocate a particular course of study, but should rather be a clearing house for information and a medium for bringing about more cooperation and less rivalry, more scientific study and less competition and suspicion.

It may furthermore be observed that no regional association and no special group of educators or scholars can undertake such a task. Hence the necessity for a National Council for Social Studies, which is, to say the least, a hopeful experiment, and as such deserves hearty support.

J. M. GAMBRILL

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QUOTATION

THE STATE AND THE SCHOOLS

GOVERNOR MILLER, in his address at the Convocation of the University of the State of New York, took the sound position that any solution of our school problem must assure the maintenance of "local interest and local attention to education." While the constitutional obligation is upon the legislature of the state to provide for the support of "free common schools wherein all the children of this state may be educated," it would be only as "a last resort" that the state should itself provide all the moneys needed to support the schools and so relieve districts not only of local school taxes, but of responsibility for the efficient conduct of the schools.

The state must see to it that minimum standards are maintained, that every child has a fair chance to be "educated" within the definition of the constitution, and that the units of taxation and administration shall be such as to

assure, as nearly as may be, equality of burden on the part of the citizens and equality of educational opportunity on the part of the children. Beyond this, local initiative and interest and sense of responsibility should be stimulated in every possible way by the state, and every community assisted by expert advice to develop its school system in the direction most helpful.

The vastly increased material assistance given by the state to all the districts of the state in Governor Smith's administration, in order to raise the inadequate salaries of teachers throughout the state, has been continued in Governor Miller's term. This amount should not be diminished. The state might give even more to promote equalization of burdens. But both parties seem to be committed through their candidates at least to the present quota. The candidates are also agreed that something must be done especially for the country schools, in whose behalf a committee of farmers and educators is now engaged in an extensive study. There is therefore seemingly no disagreement as to the general state policy toward education. Governor Smith and Governor Miller have both kept "politics" out of state educational policies.

Something now needs to be done to take politics out of the "home rule" which both would grant the schools. This can be done only by giving the Board of Education of a city school district (and New York City is one of the more than ten thousand districts in the state with as many pupils as in all the rest put together) independent control of the school system and entire responsibility for it. We shall never get politics out of the schools, nor keep the schools out of politics, until this is done.—*New York Times.*

EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH AND STATISTICS

THE BARR DIAGNOSTIC TESTS IN AMERICAN HISTORY

THE series of Diagnostic Tests in American History devised by A. S. Barr, now of the Detroit public schools, consists of two duplicate forms, denominated 2A and 2B. Each of these forms is composed of a practice test and five sub-tests, as follows:

Test I: Comprehension of historical material.

Test II: Chronology.

Test III: Relative value of historical evidence.

Test IV: Relative importance of events.

Test V: Relation of cause and result.

The chief purposes of this study were to determine the reliability of the tests, both as to total and sub-test scores, to ascertain the correlations between the scores made on the various sub-tests and the total scores and the self-correlations of each, to determine the degree of equivalence of the two forms and to measure the practice effect, or that caused by repetition. The tests were given to the American History classes of the South Bend, Indiana, High School. A total of 128 pupils took both forms of the tests. Form 2A was given first in all but one of the classes tested. In this class the order was reversed. This reversal of order in the case of one class tends to lower the coefficients of correlation when all the scores are thrown together, but at the same time it affords an opportunity to estimate the equivalence of the two forms that would not be afforded otherwise. In all cases the two forms were given within a week.

The following table gives the coefficients of correlation of the sub-tests with each other and with the total scores for each of the two forms:

FORM 2A

		Tests				
	Total Score	1	2	3	4	5
Total Score		.89	.78	.82	.56	.62
Test 1			.60	.56	.41	.72
Test 2				.45	.33	.42
Test 3					.11	.41
Test 4						.22
Aver. with sub-tests	.73	.57	.45	.38	.27	.44

FORM 2B

		Tests				
	Total Score	1	2	3	4	5
Total Score		.82	.72	.60	.40	.74
Test 1			.57	.37	.23	.41
Test 2				.32	.16	.43
Test 3					.04	.43
Test 4						.00
Aver. with sub-tests	.66	.40	.37	.29	.11	.32

It appears from this table that the correlations within Form 2A are upon the whole from ten or twelve points greater than those within 2B. No reason for this is apparent from inspection of the tests. Test I, which deals with the com-

prehension of historical material, shows a distinctly higher correlation with the total test scores than does any other of the sub-tests. It is also more highly correlated with the other sub-tests themselves. This finding is in agreement with various other results that have been found, such as those showing the comparatively high correlation between comprehension and general intelligence, and between comprehension and scores of any school subject that contains much material to be read. On the other hand Test IV shows a low correlation with the total score and very low correlations with the scores of the other sub-tests. This would seem to indicate that ability to judge the relative importance of historical characters and events is not closely connected with other historical abilities.

The following coefficients of correlation were found between the total and respective sub-test scores upon the two forms.

Total Score	.70
Test 1	.53
Test 2	.72
Test 3	.64
Test 4	.39
Test 5	.33

The coefficient between the total scores is fairly satisfactory when compared with the usual coefficients from subject-matter tests, as also are the coefficients for Tests II and III. The probable error[1] of measurement for the total score is found to be about four points which is slightly over .07 of the average score. This small probable error of measurement is also comparatively satisfactory. The low coefficients found for the other three sub-tests indicate that the sampling of the pupils' ability which they make is either not representative or is too limited. As was mentioned above, all of these coefficients are slightly lower because of the reversal of order within the two classes. It has been computed that this reversal reduced coefficients around .30 and .40 by about .05 and those around .70 by about .02.

[1] The probable error of measurement equals $.6745\ \sigma\ \sqrt{1-r}$. For σ the average of the standard deviations of Forms 2A and 2B is used. r is the coefficient of reliability, that is, the coefficient of correlation between the two forms.

The median scores made upon the tests are shown by the following table:

	Class that took 2B first	Other classes
2A	59.3	52.8
2B	47.8	58.6

It will be observed that in the case of the class which was given Form 2B first the median score upon 2B is about twelve points lower than that on 2A while for the other classes the median 2A score is about six points lower than the 2B score. Assuming that this class was large enough to give reliable data the evidence points to the fact that Form 2B is somewhat harder than 2A, the difference being about three points. Furthermore, it appears that the effect of repetition of one form soon after the other has been given is to increase the median score some nine points. The effect of repetition was also evident in the case of the sub-tests. Also, the comparative difficulty of the various sub-tests, with the exception of No. V, is fairly near to that indicated by the total scores. In the case of No. V, Form 2B is relatively much more difficult than in those of the others.

Comparing the sub-tests with each other by scores made, No. IV seems distinctly less difficult than the others. The median score upon both forms of this test was 14.4, while the other medians ranged from 9.6 to 11.1. It probably would be wise to shorten the time limit for Test IV. Otherwise the time limits seem to be suitable and the material of the tests so selected as to measure the range of ability from the lowest to the highest. No maximum score was made upon any of the sub-tests, except Test IV, although there were a number of scores of 18 or 19 out of a possible 20. But one zero score was obtained upon any of the sub-tests. There are a number of scores of one and two. The range of total scores was from 18 to 87 for Form 2A and from 29 to 82 for Form 2B, the total maximum score being 100. The distributions indicate a very satisfactory discrimination between the abilities of the various pupils.

Some information was also obtained upon a point not especially planned for at first. The test papers were all scored, under the personal direction of the writer, by clerks of whom all

but one had had considerable experience in scoring papers although none of them had ever scored papers for these tests before. It was found that the average time required to complete the scoring of each paper was very nearly twelve and one-half minutes. It required about seven minutes actually to compare the answers of the pupils with the correct answers and to put down the number of points credit to be given for each exercise, and about five and one-half minutes to add up the points of the various exercises and transfer the scores to the blanks provided on the first sheet of the folders. A time of twelve and one-half minutes per paper is too great for tests designed for the use of the average teacher. If the weighting of the various exercises and the system of scoring could be revised a large fraction of the five and one-half minutes could be saved as well as some time out of the seven minutes. For example, in scoring Test V of Form 2A it may happen that the scorer must add halves, thirds, fifths, and sevenths—a process which is bound to take some time. In other places, fourths, eighths, ninths, and tenths enter in. It would assist scoring and probably make the tests slightly easier for the pupil if the number of forms in which the pupil gives his answers could be made fewer. As the tests stand now the pupil must in some cases underline, in others place a cross before or after, in others place numbers before the exercises, and in others draw lines connecting two parts of the exercise. Probably all answers could not be made of uniform form for such tests but at least some improvement seems possible.

On the whole, especially considering that the author considers these as preliminary tests to later forms, the tests must be judged as of considerable value if compared with other tests in this field. Tests which are intended to cover more than the merely informational side of history can probably never be made as easy to give and score as tests upon the operations of arithmetic or in spelling for instance. Hence in judging such tests as these they must be compared with other tests in the same or similar fields and such a comparison is at least not unfavorable to these tests.

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UNIVERSITY OF ILLINOIS

NOTES ON RACIAL DIFFERENCES

DURING the year 1920-21 the National Intelligence Tests, Form A, were given to the pupils of Fort Smith, Arkansas. There were tested 1,502 whites and 247 negroes between the ages of 10 and 14, inclusive. All children were attending grades IV to VIII. There was no selection of pupils except that a larger percentage of the more healthy would be present on any one day. Direct evidence that the children were unselected comes from the relation between the number tested and the number given in the United States Census report. The total number of whites living in Fort Smith between the ages of 10 and 14 as given by the census is 2,877; the total number of negroes of the corresponding ages is 347. Therefore, the percentage of whites tested was 52 and the percentage of negroes 71. It may therefore justly be claimed that the selection from one race is little different from that of the other, the method of random sampling being the same in both. However, a larger percentage of negroes was chosen.

The purpose of this study is to point out the differences of attainment of whites and of negroes between the ages of 10 and 14 in the National Intelligence Tests.

Table I sets forth in parallel columns the data concerning whites and negroes between the ages of 10 and 14. The tentative norms for these ages, as computed by the makers of the National Intelligence Tests, appear at the foot of the table. These standards are manifestly too high for the pupils of Fort Smith. It is a better comparison, therefore, between the scores received by whites and negroes of the same age in the same city. Again, by referring to Table I, it is seen that the differences in median points at 10 years are 19 points; at 11 years, 25 points; at 12 years, 33 points; at 13 years, 24 points; and at 14 years, 26 points.

If we transmute the median year scores received by the negroes into the approximate year scores attained by the whites of the same age it is clear that the median 10 year old negro has the learning capacity of the median white child of less than eight years of age. In a similar way the 11 year old negro would correspond to the eight year old white, the 12 year old negro with the nine year old white, the 13

TABLE I

DISTRIBUTION OF THE SCORES OF NEGRO AND OF WHITE CHILDREN AT FIVE AGES ON THE NATIONAL INTELLIGENCE TESTS, FORT SMITH, ARKANSAS

Age	10		11		12		13		14	
Scores	Whites	Negroes	Whites	Negroes	Whites	Negroes	Whites	Negroes	Whites	Negroes
20	6	....	4	....	4	....	3	1	2	1
25	1	....	4	....	....	1	....	1	1	2
30	4	2	4	3	1	2	1	....	2	....
35	7	6	4	....	3	4	2	2	1	1
40	10	4	2	3	3	5	2	4	1	1
45	14	2	6	2	7	5	2	1	5	5
50	13	6	4	4	3	4	2	3	....	2
55	20	1	15	3	9	2	7	4	5	3
60	16	1	12	6	11	4	8	6	5	3
65	30	1	8	3	9	2	13	2	3	1
70	16	2	15	5	10	2	17	....	5	....
75	21	4	15	1	12	5	9	4	11	4
80	20	2	29	1	19	2	12	3	10	2
85	18	5	15	2	20	3	29	3	13	1
90	22	1	29	1	21	3	17	2	13	2
95	19	1	22	2	17	....	18	3	26	2
100	14	2	24	3	15	4	38	4	17	3
105	10	1	20	1	20	3	30	3	27	3
110	10	....	20	....	24	2	23	1	14	3
115	8	....	13	3	20	2	29	2	17	1
120	2	....	5	....	23	1	25	2	17	1
125	4	....	6	1	15	....	18	4	20	1
130	2	....	2	....	19	1	22	2	8	1
135	2	....	6	....	13	....	27	1	4	1
140	1	....	....	....	12	....	6	....	7	....
145	1	....	4	....	3	1	5	....	2	1
			2	....	3	....	2	....	....	....
					3	1			....	....
									1	....
Total Number	291	41	290	44	319	59	367	58	237	45
Median	77	57.5	91.4	66.7	104	70.6	106	82	105	79
Standard (Provisional)	91		103	....	113		123		131	
Highest	145	105	150	125	155	155	150	135	160	145
Lowest	20	30	below 20	30	15	25	15	14	18	18
S. D.	27.09	22.4	26.2	25.3	28.58	30.7	25.36	30.4	22.89	31.71

year old negro with the 10 year old white, and the 14 year old negro with the 10 year old white. This indicates that the negroes of Fort Smith in their capacity to learn are midway between the northern negro, whose learning capacity was represented by Trabue as being that of a 11 year old white child, and the southern negro, whose corresponding capacity was found to be equal to a nine year old white child.[1] If, on the other hand, these scores made by the 13 and 14 year old negroes are referred to the provisional standards of the National Intelligence Tests they corroborate Trabue's statements.

[1] M. R. Trabue: "Intelligence of Negro Recruits," *Natural History*, Vol. XIX, No. 6, pp. 680-685.

Summary: Racial differences between white children and negro children are pronounced. This difference varies from one and one half years at 10 years of age to three years at 14, the whites being uniformly ahead. Moreover there is considerable overlapping, since there are 20-26 per cent. of the negroes reaching or exceeding the median of the whites. The negroes seem to be divided into two groups,—one very backward, and the other quite bright. In all but one age there are several white children that surpass the highest negro score and in all but two ages some whites are lower than the lowest negroes.

A. M. JORDAN

DEPARTMENT OF PSYCHOLOGY,
UNIVERSITY OF ARKANSAS

o. 409

AGES

Negroes
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